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### Modeling malaria and typhoid fever co-infection dynamics

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### ABSTRACT

Malaria and typhoid are among the most endemic diseases, and thus, of major public health concerns in tropical developing countries. In addition to true co-infection of malaria and typhoid, false diagnoses due to similar signs and symptoms and false positive results in testing methods, leading to improper controls, are the major challenges on managing these diseases. In this study, we develop novel mathematical models describing the co-infection dynamics of malaria and typhoid. Through mathematical analyses of our models, we identify distinct features of typhoid and malaria infection dynamics as well as relationships associated to their co-infection. The global dynamics of typhoid can be determined by a single threshold (the typhoid basic reproduction number,  $\mathcal{R}_0^T$ ) while two thresholds (the malaria basic reproduction number,  $\mathcal{R}_0^M$ , and the extinction index,  $\mathcal{R}_{0}^{M}$ ) are needed to determine the global dynamics of malaria. We demonstrate that by using efficient simultaneous prevention programs, the co-infection basic reproduction number,  $\mathcal{R}_0$ , can be brought down to below one, thereby eradicating the diseases. Using our model, we present illustrative numerical results with a case study in the Eastern Province of Kenya to quantify the possible false diagnosis resulting from this co-infection. In Kenya, despite having higher prevalence of typhoid, malaria is more problematic in terms of new infections and disease deaths. We find that false diagnosis-with higher possible cases for typhoid than malaria-cause significant devastating impacts on Kenyan societies. Our results demonstrate that both diseases need to be simultaneously managed for successful control of co-epidemics.

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#### 1. Introduction 1

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2 Over the past three to four decades, malaria has been a major cause of death and illness among children and adults in many devel-3 oping countries. Approximately 300-500 million cases occur world-4 wide each year, with more than a million annual deaths [5,37,52]. 5 6 About 80% of these cases and 90% of these deaths occur in Sub-7 Saharan Africa [16,19,46]. While malaria is already causing devastating impacts on the tropical developing countries, typhoid fever 8 9 is quite common in the malaria affected areas, thereby drastically exacerbating the public health burden. Worldwide, over 21 million 10 cases and more than a half million typhoid related deaths occur each 11 12 year, with most of them taking place in Africa [2,11,23,32]. While 13 people in tropical communities are living at risk of contracting both diseases (either concurrently or an acute infection superimposed on 14 a chronic one [10]), misleading diagnosis due to similar symptoms of 15 16 these diseases and incompetent testing methodologies is one of the 17 biggest challenges for their control [16,46]. Thus studies of malaria 18 and typhoid are becoming increasingly important.

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Malaria is acquired and transmitted to humans through bites by 19 infected anopheles mosquitoes, whereas typhoid is caused by the 20 gram-negative-bacterium of the genus salmonella [16,53], known as 21 Salmonella Typhi, through ingestion of foods and drinks contaminated by infected waste. Despite differences in causes and routes of transmission, malaria and typhoid have interesting relationships causing public health encumber, which can be discussed in two broad categories: real co-infection and false diagnosis.

It is known that anemia occurs in malaria infected individuals resulting in excessive deposition of iron in the liver, which sup-28 ports the growth of salmonella bacteria that causes typhoid fever 29 [8,37]. Moreover, malaria infected individuals suffer from deficiency 30 of complements such as C3, C4, and C19 [37], and the complement 31 deficiency causes an enhanced susceptibility to salmonella infection 32 [9,51]. Therefore, infection due to malaria leads to an increased sus-33 ceptibility of typhoid. Complements are consumed during malaria 34 infection, impairing host defense mechanisms thereby slowing down 35 any anticipated disease recovery [35]. Furthermore, co-infected in-36 dividuals have a higher chance of dying because of infections due to 37 both diseases. 38

While real malaria-typhoid co-infections mentioned above pose 39 significant problems, false diagnosis often resulting in mismanage-40 ment of these diseases remains one of the biggest public health 41

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42 burdens. Malaria and typhoid exhibit similar signs and symptoms 43 such as fever, headache, vomiting, diarrhoea, and abdominal and muscle pain among others [21,34]. This, in many cases, entices physicians 44 45 to relate these signs and symptoms with a wrong disease, leading to false diagnosis. Moreover, many existing testing methods, including 46 the most commonly used Widal test [2], frequently generate false 47 positive results. For example, in one study [16] the Widal test showed 48 about 57% of typhoid positive cases whereas truly only 15% were 49 50 found to have typhoid when more reliable bacteria-culture tests were performed. Despite being more accurate, the bacteria-culture test is 51 52 not commonly used in practice because of higher costs and longer 53 processing time [37]. This high likelihood of typhoid false positive 54 results in malaria patients from the Widal test is due to a cross reac-55 tion between malaria parasites and typhoid antigens [37]. Such false diagnoses may lead to mismanagement of these diseases, posing a 56 vast challenge toward controlling them. For instance, giving antibi-57 otics to seemingly typhoid patients, when they actually have malaria, 58 not only leads to waste of drugs but also may cause emergence of 59 drug resistance in the event of true future typhoid infection. It is thus 60 critical to understand the impact of real co-infection as well as false 61 diagnosis on the disease dynamics. 62

63 Mathematical modeling of malaria dynamics is quite advanced 64 [4,6,13,14,26,28]. However, modeling of typhoid fever is very limited [1,31]. While these existing models have provided significant 65 insights into the understanding of individual disease dynamics, they 66 need to be considered simultaneously for devising proper strategies 67 to mitigate both disease burdens. Recently, a study [30] has provided 68 69 a malaria-typhoid co-infection model, which only considers direct transmission of typhoid (person-to-person) and assumes no recovery 70 71 of co-infected individuals from single diseases. In this study, we first 72 develop an improved realistic typhoid model. Then based on our new 73 typhoid model and existing standard malaria model, we further de-74 velop a co-infection model that captures the dynamics of malaria and typhoid together. Using our model, we develop a formula for the co-75 76 infection basic reproduction number, and compare it with the basic reproduction number of individual diseases. We analyze the models 77 78 for stability of equilibria and persistence of diseases. Furthermore, 79 using parameters relevant to the Eastern Province of Kenya, we study real co-infection dynamics and estimate the possible false diagnosis 80 which poses a big challenge to controlling these diseases. 81

### 82 2. Model formulation

We first develop a more realistic model for typhoid. The model 83 subdivides the human population of interest into four compart-84 ments: susceptible humans (S), infected humans (I), carrier humans 85 (C), and recovered humans (R). Previous models of typhoid dynamics 86 87 [1,30,31], including the one describing malaria-typhoid co-infection 88 [30], assume direct transmission of typhoid from infected individu-89 als to susceptible individuals. However, typhoid is largely contracted from environmental bacteria through contaminated water and/or 90 91 food and drinks [7,46], and transmission of typhoid through direct 92 person-to-person contact, if any, is negligible [20,50]. To incorporate this real biological phenomena, we consider an additional compart-93 ment, B, which represents bacteria in the environment. We assume 94 that susceptible individuals get infected with typhoid at a rate propor-95 tional to the susceptible population, S, and the environmental bacteria 96 97 concentration, *B*, at a constant rate  $\beta$ . The infected individuals either 98 progress to carrier class, C, at rate  $\alpha_t$  or recover at rate  $\eta$ . Individuals in 99 the carrier class can also recover from typhoid, but with a significantly slow rate,  $\gamma$ . Infected individuals in both infectious state and carrier 100 state excrete bacteria into the environment. However, the rate of ex-101 cretion by the infectious group,  $p_i$ , is significantly higher than that by 102 the carrier group,  $p_c$ . Note that despite low excretion of bacteria by the 103 carrier group, because of its extremely long duration without showing 104 any sickness the carrier group plays an important role on co-infection 105

dynamics of malaria and typhoid. Growth curves of organisms are 106 often described well with the logistic models [17,22,33,36,47,49], so 107 we assume that the bacteria in the environment grows according 108 to a logistic growth rate and becomes non-infectious at a rate  $\mu_h$ . r 109 and  $\kappa$  represent per capita growth rate and carrying capacity, respec-110 tively, and  $\lambda$  denotes the typhoid induced mortality in humans. The 111 constant recruitment rate into the susceptible human is represented 112 by  $\Lambda_h$ , while the natural death rate of human is represented by  $\mu_h$ . 113 The developed model can be expressed as the following differential 114 equations. 115

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \Lambda_h - (\beta B + \mu_h)S,$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \beta BS - (\mu_h + \lambda + \alpha_t + \eta)I,$$

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = \alpha_t I - (\mu_h + \lambda + \gamma)C,$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \eta I + \gamma C - \mu_h R,$$

$$\frac{dB}{dt} = rB\left(1 - \frac{B}{\kappa}\right) + p_i I + p_c C - \mu_b B.$$
(2.1)

Similar to the previous studies [4,6,13,14,26,28], we consider a 116 malaria model consisting of four human compartments (suscepti-117 ble, S, exposed, E, infected, I, and recovered, R) and three mosquito 118 compartments (susceptible,  $S_m$ , exposed,  $E_m$ , and infected,  $I_m$ ). In this 119 model, new infected humans are generated by mosquito-bites at an 120 effective biting rate,  $\alpha_{mh}b_m$ , where  $\alpha_{mh}$  denotes the infection proba-121 bility, per bite, from an infectious mosquito to a susceptible human 122 and  $b_m$  denotes the total number of mosquito bites per mosquito per 123 day. Similarly, new infected mosquitoes are generated at an effective 124 biting rate,  $\alpha_{hm}b_m$ , when susceptible mosquitoes bite infected hu-125 mans. Here,  $\alpha_{hm}$  denotes the probability of successful transmission 126 of malaria from the human to the mosquito, per mosquito bite. The 127 rates at which humans and mosquitoes progress from the exposed 128 class to the infectious class are denoted by  $\delta_h$  and  $\gamma_m$ , respectively. 129 We define  $\alpha_h$  as the rate at which individuals infected with malaria 130 recover from the disease and  $\omega$  as the malaria induced mortality in 131 humans. The constant recruitment rate into the mosquito populations 132 is represented by  $\Lambda_m$ , while the death rate of mosquito populations is 133 represented by  $\mu_m$ , respectively. The model we study is as follows: 134

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \Lambda_h - \frac{\alpha_{mh} b_m I_m}{N_h} S - \mu_h S,$$

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \frac{\alpha_{mh} b_m I_m}{N_h} S - (\mu_h + \delta_h) E,$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = \delta_h E - (\mu_h + \alpha_h + \omega) I,$$

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \alpha_h I - \mu_h R,$$

$$\frac{dS_m}{dt} = \Lambda_m - \mu_m S_m - \frac{\alpha_{hm} b_m I}{N_h} S_m,$$

$$\frac{dE_m}{dt} = \frac{\alpha_{hm} b_m I}{N_h} S_m - (\mu_m + \gamma_m) E_m,$$

$$\frac{dI_m}{dt} = \gamma_m E_m - \mu_m I_m.$$
(2.2)

Based on our novel typhoid model (2.1) and existing malaria 135 model (2.2), we now develop a co-infection model using the four 136 states of typhoid and the four states of malaria. A schematic 137 diagram of the model is shown in Fig. 1. The total human 138 population is therefore subdivided into sixteen mutually exclu-139 sive, collectively exhaustive compartments: typhoid-susceptible 140 and malaria-susceptible ( $X_{SS}$ ); typhoid-susceptible and malaria-141 exposed  $(X_{SE})$ ; typhoid-susceptible and malaria-infected  $(X_{SI})$ ; 142

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